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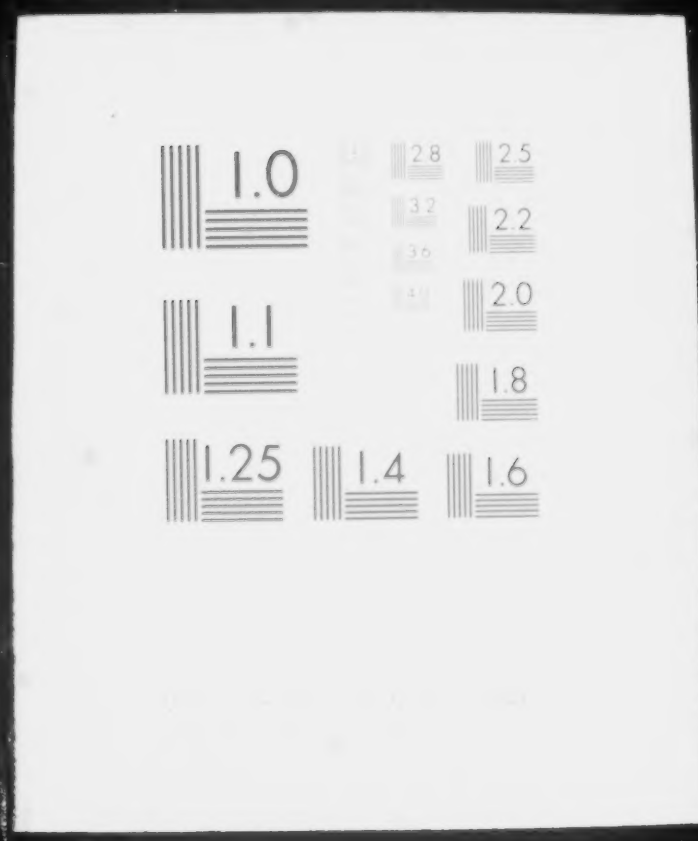

DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 059 469 AC 012 341

AUTHOR Sparks, James Allen
TITLE The Performance of Learning Tasks by the Church Session: Implications from the Literature on Leadership and the Group Task.
PUB DATE Nov 71
NOTE 88p.; Master's Thesis, University of Wisconsin

EDRS PRICE MF-$0.65 HC-$3.29
DESCRIPTORS Administrative Personnel; *Church Role; Clergymen; Group Activities; Hypothesis Testing; Interaction Process Analysis; *Leadership; *Learning Activities; *Literature Reviews; Moral Values; Objectives; Problem Solving; Religion; Research; Role Perception; *Task Performance

ABSTRACT

The parish administrative board--the Session--is an interactional group according to the operational definition as advanced by Gibb, Proshansky and Seidenberg. As a group it shares relatively common religious and moral values, as well as institutional goals. The perimeters of the Session's group life are clearly, if not legalistically, defined by the constitution of the United Presbyterian Church. Prescriptions for study are not so clearly spelled out, although the Session's willingness to study is assumed by the national church boards and agencies. Does the minister's style of leadership and the Session's task-orientation effect the board's functioning as a learning group? In this paper, an effort is made to find answers to some of these questions from the literature of small group research. Two hypotheses were advanced: (1) Administrative groups are differentiated from learning groups primarily by styles of leadership and group tasks and goals; and (2) Administrative groups in the church can become more effective at learning tasks by an educationally oriented and flexible leadership style of minister behavior and a commitment to study as well as to problem-solving and administration. The major conclusion of this paper is that an administrative group who perceives its work to be decision-making may not engage readily in other tasks, unless it, as a group, accepts such tasks and makes a commitment to them. (Author/CK)

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THE PERFORMANCE OF LEARNING TASKS BY THE CHURCH SESSION: IMPLICATIONS FROM THE LITERATURE ON LEADERSHIP AND THE GROUP TASK

By

James Allen Sparks

A Master's Paper Submitted in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Master of Science Degree
through the Department of Curriculum and
Instruction

The University of Wisconsin

Approved by _____ Date _____

AC012341

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

Working under the supervision of Professor Wilson Thiede was indeed a learning experience. I am grateful for his encouragement as I undertook this project, and his patient critique at each stage of the research. I am also grateful to Professor Robert Boyd who also encouraged this investigation and inspired my interest in groups.

I am grateful to my wife, Pauline, and daughter, Beth, who gave up trips and picnics that this project could be finished on schedule.

James Sparks
November, 1971

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The church board today has a uniquely important but complicated role at the grassroots level of institutionalized religion. Its role is uniquely important because the church board is singly charged with leading the parish congregation in a time when the church is undergoing rapid changes in institutional structure as well as in ecclesiastical priorities. This role is complicated at least in the United Presbyterian Church, U.S.A. by the parish board's dual functions. On the one hand the Session as the board is called, is directed by the church constitution to govern the parish, and less specific, but nevertheless it is assumed by those who are at other judicatory levels that the board is expected to "study".

The goals of church administration are rather precisely stated in The Book of Order,[1] but never is the assumed task of learning made clear. In 1970 the General Assembly referred no less than 15 issues, many of them

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[1] The Book of Order, 1970-71, "The Constitution of the United Presbyterian Church in the United States of America," (Philadelphia: Office of the General Assembly).

highly controversial, to the local parish churches for study. Is the directive "to study" a synonym for "to learn"? What are the goals? Are the institutional goals to better inform the board members that the members can work more effectively? Is the objective to change the behavior of the board members so they will become more effective learners?

As one pastor angrily declared at a Presbytery meeting where a paper was referred to his church: "Make up your minds; what do you want us to do - rule or study?" Perhaps in this exclamation is both a statement of the problem and a clue to its resolution.

SPECIFICATION OF THE PROBLEM AND THE HYPOTHESES

The Problem

"The performance of learning tasks by the church Session: what are the implications from the literature on leadership and the group tasks?"

Controversy, conflict, role confusion, and ambiguity seem to be an integral part of church life in America, at least in these days. The picture is rather complex due to the multi-faceted characteristics of the church-culture arena. Even clergymen are experiencing an "identity-crisis."[2] Sharp and divisive feelings in the

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[2]Jeffrey K. Hadden, "Role Conflict and the Crisis in the Churches," Ministry Studies, 2:18, December, 1968.

church have centered around actions in recent days to grant money to the Angela Davis defense fund and to consider the much publicized report on "Sexuality and the Human Community." Many Presbyterian laymen have become upset, shaken, and even self-disenfranchized from their churches. Parish church boards - not just Presbyterians - and higher administrative groups are having to deal with not only their own personal feelings, but also problems arising from unhappy members, declining budgets, and confrontations over the nature and mission of the church.

What is the leadership role of the minister as he presides over the church board? Can an administrative group - primarily task-oriented - grapple adequately with "the study" of highly-emotional issues? Given such realities as (a) the infrequency of meetings, (b) the press of routine business, (c) divergent expectations of the minister's role, (d) the initial task contract, and (e) the minister's administrative and leadership style, is it possible for the Session to include in its decision-making agenda learning tasks not necessarily tied to an impending board decision?

This paper is directed specifically to this latter question.

The Hypotheses

(1) Administrative groups are differentiated from learning groups primarily by:

(A) styles of leadership and

(B) group tasks and goals.

(a) Administrative groups in the church can become more effective at learning tasks by:

(A) an educationally-oriented and flexible leadership orientation by the minister;

(B) a commitment to study as well as to problem-solving and administration.

Cartwright and Zander in their comprehensive overview of group dynamics have stated that a correct understanding of the field permits the possibility of improvement in the performance of tasks by groups.[3]

DEFINITION OF TERMS

The Small Group Phenomena

The term "group" represents a complexity of factors and relationships. The literature identifies at least three types of relationships denoted by this term.[4]

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[3]Dorwin Cartwright and Alvin Zander, Group Dynamics: Research and Theory (New York: Harper and Row, 1968), p. 23.

[4]Cecil Gibb, "Leadership," The Handbook of Social Psychology, ed. Gardner Lindzey and Elliot Aronson IV (Reading: Addison-Wesley, 1969), p. 206.

1. Objects and people who are somehow brought together are said to constitute a group. C. A. Gibb, the Australian researcher, however, rejects this loose definition in favor of one which more tightly includes interaction and interdependence among the members. Social scientists find little or no importance in studying aggregations of people as they exclude factors of interrelation.

2. Another idea of the group suggests it is a collection of units having qualities in common. Asch (1952), according to C. A. Gibb, found this idea to be of little consequence as it excludes interaction:

"...The members are what they are with no living relation between them.[5]

3. A third understanding of group phenomena is in terms of interaction and interrelationship. Kurt Lewin (1939) and others insisted that interdependence of the members was the criterion of a group. In his overview of supporting literature for the interaction concept, C. A. Gibb cites Proshansky and Seidenberg (1965):

> "Most social psychologists use the term (group) to refer to two or more individiuals who can be collectively characterized as follows: they share a common set of norms,

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[5]Ibid.

> beliefs and values and they exist in implicitly or explicitly defined relationships to one another such that the behavior of each has consequences for the others. These properties in turn emerge from and have consequences for the interaction of individuals who are similarily motivated with respect to some specific objective or goal."[6]

Cartwright and Zander advance eight theoretical approaches to the field of group behavior, explaining these to be research biases, and not schools of thought. The researcher may be influenced in his project by any or all of these orientations.[7]

1. Field Theory came into being with the work of Kurt Lewin (1951). Behavior is the product of a field of interdependent determinants known as life space. Persons and groups are not to be seen as isolated entities, but as part of a field.

2. Interaction Theory embraces the work of Bales, Homans and Whyte (1950). The group is a system of interacting individuals and interdependent relationships.

3. Systems Theory was projected by Newcomb (1950) who used communications and biological models to get at group behavior.

4. Sociometric Theory was conceived by Moreno (1934) and elaborated by Jennings (1943) to identify

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[6]Ibid., p. 207.

[7]Cartwright and Zander, op. cit., p. 26.

interpersonal choices that bring people together.

5. Psychoanalytic Theory through the influence of Freud (1922) extended certain motivational and defensive processes of the individual to the group. Group psychotherapy found champions in Bach (1954), Bion (1948), Ezriel (1957), Scheidlinger (1952), and Stock and Thelen (1958). Cartwright and Zander state that little in research has been done in this orientation, however, it has influenced other work in group behavior.

6. General Psychology Theory indicates the strong influence of the perception theorists, i.e., Asch (1952) and Festinger (1957). They held to a point of view -- cognitive theory -- which insists on understanding how individuals integrate information from the real world into their behavior.

7. Empiricist-statistical Orientation of Borgatta, Cottrell, and Meyer (1956), Hemphill (1956) emphasized the notion that concepts of group behavior should come from statistical analysis and the use of personality testing procedures.

8. Formal Models Orientation of French, Harary, and Cartwright (1965) suggested the use of mathematical instruments to deal with groups.

The literature noted in this paper cuts across each of the orientations identified above.

Elements of Groups

Elements as used in this paper, refers to such behavioral aspects of group process as leadership and the group task. Part of the problem in small group research is in behavior classification. Borgatta, et al, state the problem:

> "The differences in factor names are not only characteristic of the differences in variables used, but also a reflection of the early stages experimentation with groups."[8]

Broad designations such as group loyalty, leadership, and group effectiveness are ambiguous and of little consequence in behavioral classifications according to Cartwright.[9]

Obviously, within the scope of this study, all possible elements of group behavior could not be fully developed. Which elements to choose? Modes of leadership and leader behavior were chosen because this appears to be influenced by other group behaviors.[10] The kind of task is an important element noted by Shaw, who named three classes of group variables: (a) kind of task, (b) kinds

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[8]Edgar Borgatta, et al., "On the Dimensions of Group Behavior," Groups and Organization, ed. Bernard Hinton and Joseph Reitz (Belmont: Wadsworth Publishing Co. 1971), p. 12.

[9]Cartwright, op. cit., p. 57.

[10]David Coleman, "A Study of the Leader Behavior of Selected Directors of University Conference Operations" (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Wisconsin, 1969), p. 13.

of individuals in the group, and (c) structure of the group.[11]

C. A. Gibb has further reinforced the rationale of this paper by establishing the relationship between task and leadership: "The expectations of followers, the nature of task, and the institutionalization of the group are all factors in the situation within which the leader behaves and to which he adapts."[12] The role prescription for leadership is contingent upon the group situation, he concludes.

The Session

Churches in the United Presbyterian Church are governed by representative democracy. At the local parish level men, women, and sometimes youth are elected by the congregation to serve a three-year term on the primary administrative group known as the "Session." These elected officers, called "ruling elders" together with the pastor, constitute the Session which exercises governing authority over the ecclesiastical and corporate affairs of the parish.

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[11]Marvin E. Shaw, "Acceptance of Authority, Group Structure, and the Effectiveness of Small Groups," Journal of Personality 27: 196-210, p. 196.

[12]C. A. Gibb, op. cit., p. 273.

Oversight of the Session, according to Presbyterian principles of government, is lodged in higher representative judicatories: The Presbytery (usually all Presbyterian Churches of a particular area), the Synod (representatives from Presbyteries of a three to six state area), and the General Assembly (meeting once each year with representatives from every Presbytery). It is a central Presbyterian principle of government that a judicatory of larger scope governs the smaller; while not autonomous, each body is accountable to the one above it.[13]

The Session's opportunity to deal constructively with controversial issues in the parish, such as the Angela Davis and sexuality issues, is set forth in the recent quasi-official administrative guide:

> "Leadership in dealing with conflict is exerted in administrative procedures such as planning, organizing, personnel activity, and group functioning, and expertness in these areas will result in maximum effectiveness..."[14]

The Book of Order of the Presbyterian Church in the United States of America outlines the broad perimeters of the church's work, including the Session. A summary statement puts the work of the Session into theological

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[13]Arthur Adams, ed., Administration in the Church: Theory and Practice (Philadelphia: General Assembly, UPUSA, 1970), p. 13.

[14]Ibid., p. 46.

perspective: "The Session is to lead the congregation in participation in the mission of the Church in the world."[15] Thus follows the question, "Can a group adequately lead a congregation in world mission if it does not function effectively as a learning group?"

How does the Session in fact go about its work? What are the problems of its own group life? There is little known particularized research on these specific questions. Annual reports are sent to the General Assembly which give factual and statistical information on tasks accomplished, but these do not reveal the inner processes of the reporting Sessions. Grace Ann Goodman's first hand observations of parish churches brilliantly documents in nine case studies how ministers and their governing boards deal with controversy, conflict and the church in the process of change.[16]

Other informal studies -- more of an action-reflection model -- are being coordinated by the newly-established Academy of Parish Clergy, a professional society for parish ministers, whose objective is to encourage their continuing education.

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[15] The Book of Order, 1970-71, op. cit., p. 41.06.

[16] Grace Ann Goodman, Rocking the Ark (New York: Board of National Missions, UPUSA, 1968).

No one agency or group is at the moment collecting and disseminating information on current ministry studies. The Ministry Studies Board, Washington, D.C., having phased out this aspect of its work in 1969 because of funding difficulties, now almost exclusively is engaged in contracted research.[17] Mills continues his interest in current and past research as he becomes aware of it, however, the board no longer publishes listings or abstracts.

Although research is going on in the field of ministry studies, it is a problem finding out about it. In the past year at the University of Wisconsin at least four projects involving the church and its work have come to the writer's attention, but only accidentally.

Learning Groups Differentiated from Administrative Groups

Learning groups are differentiated from administrative groups by their focus on purposeful and intentioned learning. Groups engaged in administration are task-oriented in that program and policy result from their work. Haiman (1950) makes a sharp distinction between learning groups and administrative groups.[18] The purpose of a pure

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[17]A telephone interview with Dr. Edgar Mills, Director, The Ministry Studies Board, Washington, D.C., August 24, 1971.

[18]F. S. Haiman, Group Leadership and Democratic Action (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1950), p. 79.

learning group, he says, is individual growth, although he allows that pure learning groups probably exist only in an academic climate. The purpose of administrative groups -- what he calls action groups -- is productivity. They make decisions and follow-through on plans.

Learning behavior is change-oriented[19] while administrative work is concerned primarily with maintaining, rather than changing, established structures.[20] One of the guides published by the church Board of Christian Education makes a distinction between learning and administrative tasks:

> "Meetings of boards, committees, and organizations are held regularily. Many of these are not study groups, and they have particular responsibilities to attend to... Moreover, it is frequently possible, by careful planning of the agenda for board and committee meetings, to allow time to discuss a relevant book or to study an issue in depth..."[21]

Administration are those necessary activities of persons in an organization who are responsible for ordering,

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[19]Robert Boyd, "The Group As a Socio-Physiological Setting," (unpublished monograph, University of Wisconsin, no date), p. 11. (Mimeographed.)

[20]James M. Lipham, "Leadership and Administration," Behavioral Science and Educational Administration, Sixty-third Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II (Chicago: University of Chicago, 1964) p. 122.

[21]"Let's Look at Leadership." (Philadelphia: Board of Christian Education, 1962).

forwarding and facilitating the efforts of that organization.[22]

SUMMARY

The parish administrative board -- the Session -- is an interactional group according to the operational definition as advanced by Gibb, Proshansky and Seidenberg. As a group it shares relatively common religious and moral values, as well as institutional goals. The perimeters of the Session's group life are clearly, if not legalistically, defined by the constitution of the United Presbyterian Church. Prescriptions for study are not so clearly spelled out, although the Session's willingness to study is assumed by the national church boards and agencies.

Does the minister's style of leadership and the Session's task-orientation effect the board's functioning as a learning group? In this paper we hope to find answers to some of these questions from the literature of small group research.

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[22]Ordway Tead, The Art of Administration (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1951), p. 195.

CHAPTER II

CONCEPTS OF GROUP LEADERSHIP

Where there are groups there is a concern for how one person may influence another toward a particular goal or task. The phenomenon of leadership is a reality which has long interested theorists and researchers in group process. Since 1940 there has been an upsurge of literature dealing with leadership. Before World War II students of group process tried to discover the nature of leadership by drawing inferences from biographical studies of great leaders. This search gave rise to the trait approach to leadership. However, the inadequacies of this orientation soon began to point to another direction, the interactional concept. This idea considered leadership not as a set of characteristics, but as an interrelational dynamic between leaders, the group, and the situation.

In this chapter leadership is examined both in terms of a one-leader concept and as behaviors exercised by members of the group. Two overviews are presented to show the breadth of the field and different ways of organizing the research. Then follows a section on leader behavior, noting some of the important work in

that area. The situational approach to leadership includes the generally accepted social-system model of Getzels and Guba as a means of diagnosing appropriate leader behaviors.

Finally, different styles of leadership from the literature of business management, small group research, and educational administration is examined.

THE NATURE OF LEADERSHIP

Confusion resulted in early leadership studies due to a failure to distinguish the leader as a person from leadership as a process.[1]

C. A. Gibb's Analysis

C. A. Gibb has broadly catagorized the major trends in leadership theory as (a) unitary trait, (b) constellation-of-traits, and (c) interaction theories.[2]

Trait Theories. The trait approach to understanding leadership held that an individual's behavior was largely determined by uniquely held personality traits. The "unitary trait theory" claimed that leaders were characterized by one trait. C. A. Gibb cites Cowley

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[1]E. P. Hollander and J. W. Julian, "Contemporary Trends in Analysis of Leadership Processes," Groups and Organization, ed. Bernard Hinton and Joseph Reitz (Belmont Wadsworth Publishing Co., 1971), p. 164.

[2]C. A. Gibb, op. cit., p. 268.

(1928) as one who first challenged the "one-trait" notion in favor of the "constellation-of-traits theory". Proponents of this view believed the elements of leadership were to be found in the personality of individuals.[3] A number of traits or personality characteristics were thought to be involved in making leaders powerful and influential men. But as students of group process began to explore this notion, they found that the trait theories defied scientific probing.[4] Why were some personality traits identified as effective in one situation but not effective in another? Thus the stage was set for new understandings and approaches to this perplexing phenomenon.

Interaction Theory. From traits and personality characteristics attention turned to such concepts as functions, situation, group members, and interrelationships. Thelen (1954) was among the first to propose the idea that leadership is a set of functions belonging to the group.[5] This, of course, was a sharp departure from the concept that it was limited to one person designated

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[3]Ibid., p. 269.

[4]Joseph A. Reilly III, The Effects of Different Leadership Styles on Group Performance, U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare (Industrial Relations Center, Iowa State University, Amers, Iowa, 1968), p. 2.

[5]Herbert A. Thelen, Dynamics of Groups at Work Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1968).

as leader. As C. A. Gibb put it:

> "Leadership may now be conceptualized as a group function. Leadership emerges in a group as part of a more diffuse differentiation of roles by which group members more expeditiously achieve group goals and satisfy their individual group-invested needs."[6]

Elements of the interactional theory, he continues, are as follows:

(1) Groups are mechanism for helping individual members achieve personal satisfaction.

(2) The differentiations of roles is part of the group's movement toward goals and satisfaction. Leadership is one of the group roles.

(3) Leadership is a concept applied to the interaction of two or more persons.

(4) Leadership is a complex system of emotional relations.[7]

Also holding to the interaction theory of leadership, Cartwright and Zander call it the emerging concept of group life.[8] The standards and values of the group determine who does what and when. A group may have many leaders depending upon the circumstances and the skills

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[6]C. A. Gibb, op. cit., p. 102.

[7]Ibid., p. 109.

[8]Cartwright and Zander, op. cit., p. 304.

of the members. As shall be seen a little later, leadership is as much shaped by the situational and organizational context as by individual characteristics. C. A. Gibb sums up the interactional theory:

> "Leadership, like any other role behavior, is a function of personal attributes and social system in dynamic interaction. Both leadership structure and individual leader behavior are determined in large part by the nature of the organization in which they occur. Leadership structure is relative, also to the population characteristics of the group..."[9]

Rejecting the notion that leadership is personality traits invested in gifted individuals, the literature proposes it is an aspect of the group in which one or more persons may exercise functional leadership roles depending upon the situation.

Once more Gibb in his comprehensive analysis of the literature and summary has indicated several ways researchers have dealt with leadership. One way is to think of leader as an individual in a given office. He cites the work of Shartle and Stogdill (1952) who studied persons in positions of military authority. Another approach was to see the leader as focus for the behavior of group members. Redl (1942), influenced greatly by Freud, did pioneering conceptualizing from this orientation. He developed the idea of "central person," the individual

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[9]C. A. Gibb, op. cit., p. 270.

around whom the group forms. This relationship, he says, is emotional.[10] He elaborated on the importance of the central person by delineating 10 roles which the leader plays in a group and which are emotionally charged. Another way of thinking about the leader and leadership is in terms of sociometric choice. C. A. Gibb finds this prominent in the work of Jennings (1950) who developed an instrument for the study of leadership structure in small groups. The leader is one who exercises influence over others, is another category which Gibb finds reflected in the work of Seeman and Morris (1950).[11] Still another understanding is to define the leader in terms of influence on syntality. Leadership is bestowed to those who contribute to the group process. The leader as one who engaged in leadership behaviors is more directly process-oriented as Gibb found in Carter and Hemphill (1952).[12] Most groups have many leaders who operate from a variety of assumptions about how leaders ought to behave. Finally, he speaks of focused versus distributed leadership. This is the one-person-designated-leader concept versus that of emergent leadership behavior from the group itself.

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[10] Fritz Redl, "Group Emotion and Leadership," Psychiatry, 5:573-596, November 1942.

[11] C. A. Gibb, op. cit., p. 212.

[12] Ibid., p. 215.

Gordon Lippitt's Analysis

The overview of literature on leadership by Gordon Lippitt more thoroughly differentiates the interactional concept. He rejects "the trait approach" as does C. A. Gibb, but further particularizes the interactional concept into the (a) "the situational approach," (b) "the behavior approach," (c) "the styles-of-leadership-approach," and (d) "the functional-leadership approach."[13]

The situational approach is based on the notion that the context of leadership is the determinant of what behaviors may be most appropriate to the situation.

The behavior approach concentrates on the behavior which people carry out when they are in positions of leadership. Lippitt claims that most leaders perform to one extent or another four major functions.

(1) The symbolic function, such as the English monarch.

(2) A decision-making function, such as a political boss.

(3) The information-giving function.

(4) The initiation of plans function.

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[13]Gordon Lippitt, "What Do We Know About Leadership," in Warren G. Bennis, et al., The Planning of Change (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1961), pp. 431-435.

The styles-of-leadership approach is discussed at length later in this chapter.

By functional-leadership Lippitt means the performance of those functions which are required by the group. This approach includes the others with the exception of traits. Styles of leadership and the situational approach will vary from group to group. This seems to coincide with what C. A. Gibb calls diffused leadership where members of the group may perform the role as their skills and the situation apply. Lippitt draws upon Cartwright and Zander's two classifications of leadership needs in groups, i.e., the achievement of the group goal and the maintenance of the group itself.[14]

In the following review of research, we have not attempted to limit our search to one particular point of view or orientation. Rather, we have tried to examine the literature which most clearly addresses the task of analyzing the church board and the minister's relation to it.

THE BEHAVIOR OF LEADERS

Whether they are appointed, self-designated, or emergent from the group, what do leaders actually do? This question has been the target of much research.

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[14] Ibid.,

Carter (1951) was among the first to study leader behavior by direct observation of groups and comparing the actions of leaders with those of non-leaders.[15] He found that in some cases the leader's behavior is affected by the task on which the group is working. The most important research directed toward the determinants of the dimensions of leader behavior, according to C. A. Gibb, is the Hemphill work at Ohio State University. Hemphill began by tentatively defining leadership as "behavior of an individual when he is directing the activities of a group toward a shared goal.[16] He suggested that the leader's most important function may be maintaining group membership as a satisfying experience and facilitating the group. He must show ability to advance the purpose of the group and have the competence to deal with administrative functions. His work is to inspire the members and work as a pace-setter.

Since the Ohio State Studies, other researchers have refined Hemphill's formulations. Bowers and Seashore (1971) correlated a number of the more important studies

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[15]L. Carter, et al., "The Behavior of Leaders and Other Group Members," Journal of Abnormal Social Psychology, 46:590, (October, 1951).

[16]John K. Hemphill, "Situational Factors in Leadership," (Columbus: Bureau of Educational Research for the Ohio State University, 1949).

on leadership behavior and proposed four dimensions which they felt emerged from all the research. These include:

(1) Support behavior which strengthens a group member's sense of self-worth.

(2) Interaction facilitation -- the encouragement of members to develop close and mutually-satisfying relations.

(3) Goal emphasis.

(4) Work facilitation -- goal-directing behavior.[17]

The support and interaction facilitation dimensions in Bowers and Seashore correspond to group maintenance functions in Cartwright and Zander, while goal emphasis and work facilitation cover Cartwright and Zander's second set of leadership functions, i.e., goal achievement.[18] Their comparative analysis of the refinements of Hemphill is shown in Figure 1.

The University of Michigan studies, carried on at the same time as the Ohio State work, developed clusters of characteristics around concepts in industrial

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[17]David G. Bowers and Stanley E. Seashore, "Predicting Organizational Effectiveness with a Four-Factor Theory of Leadership," in Groups and Organizations, ed. Bernard Hinton and H. Joseph Reitz (Belmont: Wadsworth Co., 1971), p. 179.

[18]Cartwright and Zander, op. cit.

CORRESPONDENCE OF LEADERSHIP CONCEPTS OF DIFFERENT INVESTIGATORS

Bowers and Seashore (1964)	Hemphill and Coons (1957)	Halpin and Winter (1957)	Katz et al. Kahn (1951)	Kahn (1958)	Mann (1962)	Likert (1961)	Cartwright and Zander (1960)
Support	Maintenance of membership character	Consideration	Employee orientation	Need Satisfaction	Human relations skills	Principle of supportive relationships	Group maintenance functions
Interaction facilitation	Group interaction facilitation behavior	Sensitivity				Group methods of supervision	
Goal emphasis	Objective attainment behavior	Production emphasis	Production orientation	Structuring path to goal attainment	Administrative Skills	High performance goals	Goal achievement functions
				Modifying employees goals			
Work facilitation		Initiation structure		Enabling goal achievement	Technical skills	Technical knowledge, planning scheduling	

Figure 1. TABLE ADAPTED FROM BOWERS AND SEASHORE (1964).

management. The work of Katz and Kahn (1951) and of Kahn is cited as specifying the behaviors of leaders in terms of need satisfactions of employees. (See Figure 1).

Both Mann (1965) and Likert (1961) also studied the behavior of leaders from the point of view of business management. Mann categorizes three areas of skills which a leader should have:

(1) Human relations skills, i.e., the ability to work with people,

(2) Technical skills to use latest methods for the performance of specific tasks,

(3) Administrative skills to understand and act according to the objectives of the total organization, rather than to rely on individual need satisfaction.[19]

Likert's five dimensions of effective supervisory behavior are elaborations of the earlier classifications.[20]

Dimensions of leadership behavior as described first in the Hemphill studies and later modified by Halpin and Winter, including the research at the University

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[19] F. C. Mann, "Toward an Understanding of the Leadership Role in Formal Organization," in Leadership and Productivity, ed. R. Dubin and others (San Francisco, California: Chandler Publishing Co., 1965, p. 68-103.

[20] R. Likert, New Patterns of Management (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1961).

of Michigan, apply to both the designated leader and to emergent leaders in small groups. The emphasis may be on the designated leader's actions in one project and in another the emphasis may be on leadership functions as the needs of the group emerge. Cartwright and Zander's two catagories - task achievement and group maintenance - constitute broad patterns of group needs.

Emergent leadership from the group does not mean that formally-designated leaders are unnecessary, according to Bowers and Seashore. They believe the actions of a formally-designated leader sets the tone for mutual leadership whether it is by subordinates in a hierarchial organization or by the members of a group.[21] Hollander supports the contention that the leader helps to set the tone for relationships within the group and therefore he has a significant influence on group outcomes. He influences the structure as well as the process within the structure.[22]

From the beginning it has been conjectured that what the leader does and how he does it effects the group. The implication follows that the minister's behavior likewise has an effect upon the parish board -- the Session -- of which he is moderator or chairman.

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[21]Bowers and Seashore, op. cit., p. 191.

[22]Hollander and Julian, op. cit., p. 166.

We further conjecture that his behavior in the board is influenced by his orientation to leadership and by the situational and environmental factors of the organization. In the next section we shall examine the situational-organizational dimension of leadership, drawing heavily upon the recognized work of Getzels and Guba.

THE INFLUENCE OF SITUATIONAL FACTORS ON LEADERSHIP

Again C. A. Gibb effectively puts into perspective the situational-organizational factors influencing leadership.

> "The expectations of followers, the nature of the task, and the institutionalization of the group are all factors in the situation within which the leader behaves and to which he adapts."[23]

As the literature has shown, much investigation has been carried on from a psychological orientation. But the sociological approach has also been considered by researchers. Studies examining the situation in which group process occurs, have found that patterns of behavior effective in one situation may not be effective in another. According to this view leadership needs change as organizational or group needs change.[24]

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[23] C. A. Gibb, op. cit., p. 272.

[24] Ibid., p. 238.

C. A. Gibb lists at least four categories of behavioral determinants in the situational approach to the study of leadership:

(1) The structure of interpersonal relations within the group.

(2) Group syntality characteristics, i.e., the effectiveness of the total performance of the group as a group.

(3) Characteristics of the total culture in which the group exists.

(4) The physical conditions and the task of the group.

Leadership is always relative to the situation. Reilly (1968) tested Fielder's hypotheses and found that the superiority of relationship-oriented leaders may be attributed to a higher-order organizational variable -- the factor of organizational climate.[25]

McCarty and Ramsey, observing the behavior of 51 school superintendents in relation to their boards of education found the environment (i.e., community power, structure, type of board to prescribe the parameters of leadership.[26] They described four types of

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[25]Reilly, op. cit.

[26]Donald J. McCarty and Charles E. Ramsey, The School Managers (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood).

school boards and the leadership style most associated with the type. In the dominated community and board, the administrator is in the role of a functionary who carries out policy rather than initiates it. In the factional community and board, he is a political strategist who tries to please. Where there is inert power structure, the superintendent is a decision-maker. The ideal situation, according to McCarty and Ramsey is the pluralistic situation in which the leader is in the role of professional advisor. Such a board is flexible with a willingness to consider issues on their merits.

Although the social system theory of Getzels and Guba was not used by McCarty and Ramsey as a research model, it provides a generally accepted theoretical framework for guiding both research and practice in education. Boyd at the University of Wisconsin has adopted the Getzels-Guba model as one of many models used in diagnosing the educational setting of the adult learner.[27] In examining the leader behavior of selected directors of university conferences, Coleman (1969) uses this paradigm as the theoretical basis of his study.[28] Wiggins,

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[27]Robert Boyd, included in his course, "Teaching the Adult Learner," University of Wisconsin, Fall, 1969.

[28]Coleman, op. cit., p. 18.

investigating leader behavior characteristics and the organizational climate, also incorporated the Getzels-Guba model.[29]

The social system, according to Getzels and Guba, can be any group of people. It may be a given community or a school or a class within a shcool. Two major classes of phenomena are integral to the model. The first is the institutions with their attendant roles and expectations within the system. The second is the individuals with their needs and personalities who are a part of the social system. These are known as the nomothetic and idiographic dimensions of the system.[30]

The institutions are characterized by their purposiveness. They are in business to accomplish certain tasks and goals. Secondly, they are peopled. They need human beings to carry out their tasks. Thirdly, they are structured. Work is carried out by persons acting in differentiated roles. Fourthly, they are normative in that the roles of the institution serve as standards of behavior for the persons in those roles.

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[29]Thomas W. Wiggins, "Leader Behavior Characteristics and Organizational Climate," (Paper based on unpublished Doctor's dissertation and presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Los Angeles, February 5-8, 1969).

[30]Jacob Getzels and E. G. Guba, "Social Behavior and the Administrative Process," School Review, LXV (Winter, 1957), p. 424.

Fifthly, according to Getzels and Guba, institutions are sanction-bearing: "Institutions must have at their disposal appropriate positive and negative sanctions for insuring compliance with the norms..."[31] The model also includes sub-units representing positions, offices and statuses within the institution.

A graphic expression of the model is seen in Figure 2 with the nomothetic axis at the top and the idiographic dimension at the bottom.

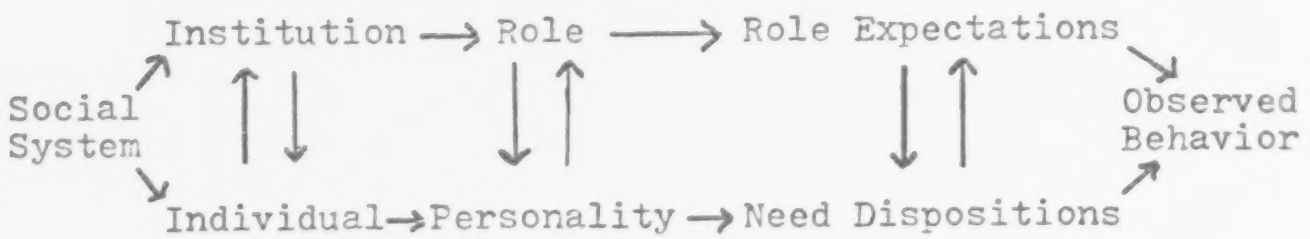

Figure 2

The authors explain their conceptualization:

> "Thus the social system is defined by its institutions; each institution, by its constituent roles; each role, by the expectations attaching to it. Similarly, the idiographic axis, shown at the lower portion of the diagram, consists of individual, personality, and need-dispositions, each term again serving as the analytic unit for the term preceding it. A given act is conceived as deriving simultaneously from both the nomothetic and the idiographic dimensions. That is to say, social behavior results as the individual attempts to cope with an environment composed of patterns of

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[31] Ibid., p. 426.

> expectations for his behavior in ways consistent with his own independent pattern of needs."[32]

The church board would clearly seem to meet the Getzels-Guba criteria for being a social system in itself or else being part of a larger social system, i.e., the parish. Houle's general description of administrative boards would seem to support this. Says Houle:

> (1) Boards are always related to some organization.
>
> (2) Their over-all goal must be the same as the parent organization.
>
> (3) The relationship of board to organization is one of control and assistance.
>
> (4) Boards are comprised of individuals with their own set of needs.
>
> (5) Boards are related to the world outside itself.
>
> (6) They must work with an executive and staff who in themselves have rights.[33]

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[32] Ibid., p. 429.

[33] Cyril O. Houle, The Effective Board (New York: The Association Press, 1960), p. 5.

The church as an organization among organizations is not really understood by church leaders, according to church researcher Ross Scherer.[34] However, Ashbrook (1964) investigating ministerial leader behavior in the church organization demonstrated the sociological hypothesis that protestant churches do provide a prominent and viable setting for study.[35]

STYLES OF LEADERSHIP

Having reviewed the trait theories of leadership and the interactionists, we summarized how researchers have dealt with leadership as exercised by "a person" and as "process." From this we considered the widely-accepted sociological-situational model of Getzels and Guba. We now turn to styles of leadership which are descriptive as well as perscriptive of patterns of behavior in school and business administration.

Lewin, Lippitt, and White Pioneering Studies

A review of the literature on styles of leadership reveals that the Lewin, Lippitt, and White research in Iowa

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[34]Ross P. Scherer, "Sources of Role Conflict: Summary and Discussion," Ministry Studies 2 (December, 1968), p. 42.

[35]James B. Ashbrook, "Ministerial Leadership in Church Organization," Ministry Studies 1 (May, 1967) pp. 1-33.

in 1943 has been the most comprehensive analysis to date.[36] Later work by theorists and practitioners seem to be variations of their conceptualizations.

In the Iowa studies different approaches of leadership were applied to several groups of boys. Lewin, Lippitt, and White found that certain types of leadership behavior seem to hang together in patterns delineating particular philosophies of seeking certain objectives and goals. These particular philosophies of leadership ranged from very rigid and controlling behavior at one extreme to a passive, almost non-involved style, at the other. The researchers named their categories "autocratic," "democratic," and "laisse-faire," respectively.

The autocratic leader in his group gave orders and generally disrupted the group. He was more interested in goal achievement than in the social-emotional life of the group. He was free to give criticism and to direct it personally to the members. C. A. Gibb cites Cattell who refers to psychological controls, i.e., the management of fear in the group. The autocratic leader exploits regressive, primitive, and unconscious needs including dependency.[37] Usually the attention of the group must

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[36] C. A. Gibb, op. cit., p. 258.

[37] Ibid.

focus upon him. There may be more work, but the morale is lower. There is less friendliness in the group. Bernthall speaks of the "Great Man" concept of leadership whose charisma creates organizational dependency upon him.[38] Reid (1969) writing about ministers suggests the "Holy Man Syndrom."[39]

At the other extreme of the leadership-style continuum is the laisse-faire leader. Lewin, Lippitt, and White describe his behavior in terms of the group, what it feels and does. There is less sense of accomplishment, because there is less work. The cognitive structure of the group is vague because the member is less sure of his environment, i.e., the goals and means of achieving the goals. There is less friendship with the adult because the adult is not envolved in the group process. An air of almost complete freedom prevails.[40]

The democratic leader is at the center of the continuum. His behavior is group-oriented. He offers guiding

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[38]Wilmar F. Bernthal, "Organizational Leadership: Some Conceptual Models," (Paper presented at the Mountain-Plains Institute for New Presidents of Community Colleges: Scottsdale, Arizona, May 5, 1969), p. 1.

[39]Clyde Reid, Groups Alive - Church Alive (New York: Harper and Row, 1969), p. 76.

[40]Ralph K. White and Ronald Lippitt, Autocracy and Democracy (New York: Harper and Brother, 1960), p. 61.

suggestions and is an active participant in the group, unlike the laisse-faire leader who almost withdraws from the group. He gives information readily and attempts to stimulate the self-direction of the members. There is high morale and a generally trusting climate. The researchers identify six values which are at the psychological core of democratic leadership. They are (a) open-mindedness, (b) self-acceptance and self-confidence, (c) a respect for the facts, (d) freedom from status-mindedness, (e) fairness, and (f) friendliness and good will attitudes.[41] Learnings are likely to be more real and lasting, they claim. There is also the added feature that the group process will reinforce and carry a person's changed attitudes even further. Hollander supports the notion that participatory leaders make more of a contribution to a group's performance than the laisse-faire leaders.[42]

The superiority of democratic leadership was underlined by Haiman (1950) who has gleaned from social science research and from education that people understand best those things learned by experience and participation.[43] Group decision arrived at mutually,

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[41] Ibid., p. 283.

[42] Hollander, op. cit., p. 169.

[43] Franklyn S. Haiman, op. cit., p. 82.

he says, elicits more support and action than those handed down. Gibb cites Bennett (1955), Coch and French (1948), and Lewin (1947) who have confirmed that people learn by participation. This understanding says Gibb, is part of the technique of the democratic leader.[44]

Variations of a Theme

Research as well as the practice of leadership is characterized in the literature by variations of the original Lewin, Lippitt, and White studies. Some of these are cited as examples.

Pigors (1935) differentiated between leadership and headship.[45] Leadership, which Pigors claims is the educator approach, is directed toward the group, helping the group achieve its goals. Headship or the dominator approach includes most of the characteristics of the authoritarian leader.

The subtle differences between the autocratic leader and the democratic leader are set forth by Haiman. The "executive" and the "Judge" are authoritarian because the executive makes decisions and orders their execution, and the judge arbitrates between possible decisions. The

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[44] C. A. Gibb, op. cit., p. 261.

[45] P. Pigors, Leadership or Domination (Boston: Houghton-Mifflin, 1935).

"advocate" may be either authoritarian or democratically oriented depending upon whether he puts the institution or people first. The authoritarian advocate may be a charismatic leader and persuasive in his point of view. The democratic leader, says Haiman, is more the "discussion-leader."

From the point-of-view of business management McGregor distinguishes between "autocractic" and "democratic" styles in his theories of "X" and "Y". Theory Y he claims is the "educator role" of management helping individuals and groups fulfil the organizational goals,[46] while Theory X is the more authoritarian. Flory[47] and Tead[48] emphasize the educator role of the administrator whose task is to train people to work more effectively in the organization.

A different way of looking at leadership styles and patterns of managerial behavior is through grids. Blake and Mouton[49] with their 9,9 grid and Reddin with

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[46]Douglas McGregor, The Human Side of Enterprise (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1960), p. 28.

[47]Charles D. Flory, ed. Managers for Tomorrow (New York: Mentor, 1965), p. 141.

[48]Tead, op. cit., p. 195.

[49]Blake, Robert R. and Jane S. Mouton, The Managerial Grid (Houston: Gulf Publishing Co., 1904).

his 3-D theory[50] have attempted to get at the more subtle aspects of leadership behavior than did McGregor's pioneering formulations. Grids are an attempt to apply behavioral science to concrete situations. They stem from the notion that managerial behavior is concerned about task and people.[51] Blake and Mouton propose a single idealized 9,9 leadership style while Reddin calls for flexibility of style to fit the situation.

The Reddin 3-D grid, while not as sharply differentiated into authoritarian behavior vs. laisse-faire behavior, is designed to help the manager analyse his situation and adjust his behavior to fit the situation. Reddin speaks in terms of "more appropriate" or "less appropriate" behavior.

In the Blake and Mouton grid, five classic styles of leadership behavior serve as managerial possibilities depending upon whether the emphasis is upon concern for people or concern for task. The 9,1 style is closest to the X Theory of McGregor and the autocratic leader of Lewin, Lippitt, and White, while the 1,1 style is more like the laisse-faire or non-involved leader. (See Figure 3)

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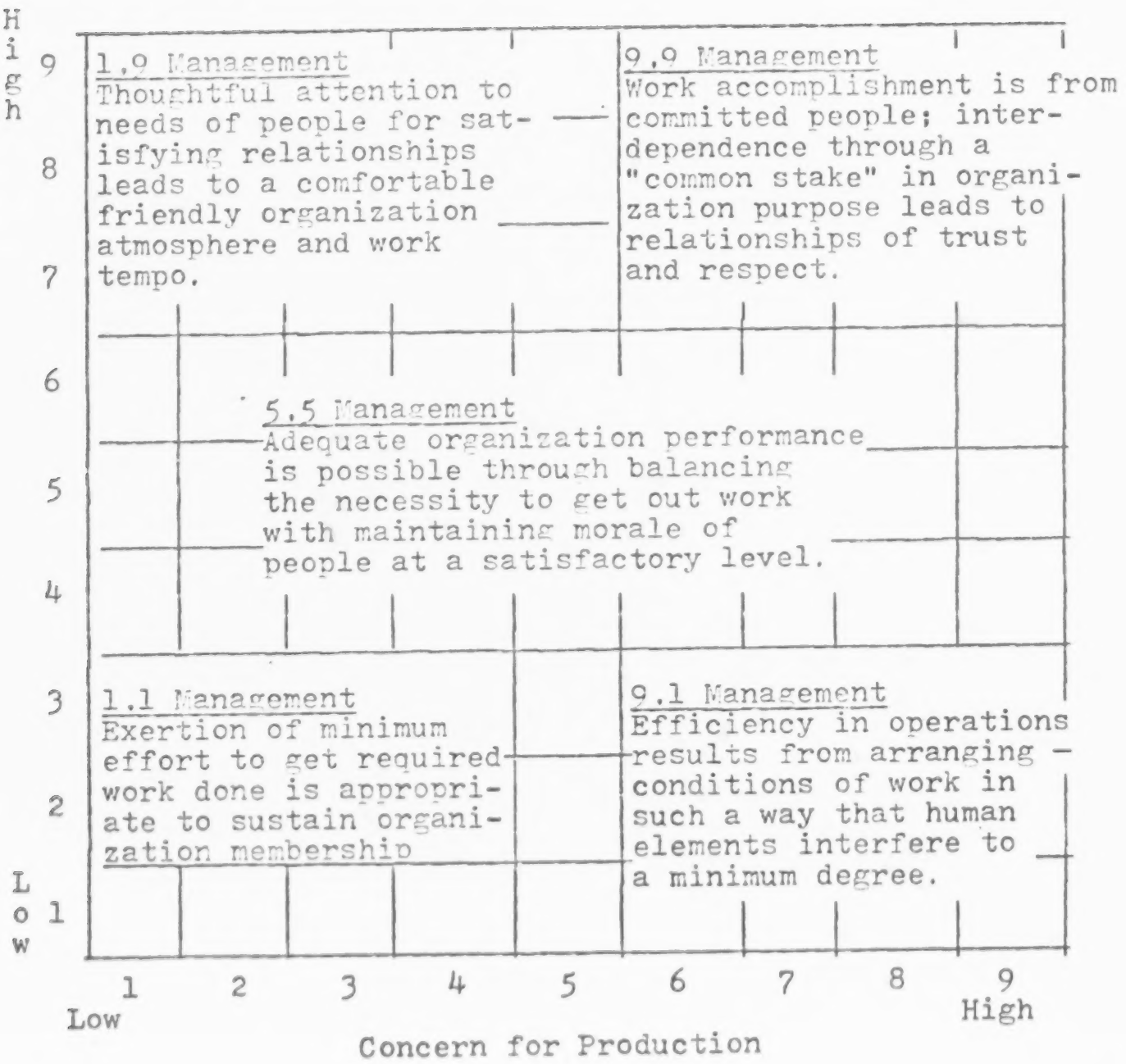
[50] J. W. Reddin, Managerial Effectiveness (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1970).

[51] Philip R. Brereton, "Management Grids," (mimeographed paper, University of Wisconsin Management Training Institute, 1970), p. 4.


High
9
8
7
6
5
4
3
2
1
Low
1,9 Management
Thoughtful attention to needs of people for satisfying relationships leads to a comfortable friendly organization atmosphere and work tempo.
9,9 Management
Work accomplishment is from committed people; interdependence through a "common stake" in organization purpose leads to relationships of trust and respect.
5,5 Management
Adequate organization performance is possible through balancing the necessity to get out work with maintaining morale of people at a satisfactory level.
1.1 Management
Exertion of minimum effort to get required work done is appropriate to sustain organization membership
9.1 Management
Efficiency in operations results from arranging conditions of work in such a way that human elements interfere to a minimum degree.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
Low
High
Concern for Production

THE MANAGERIAL GRID
Blake and Mouton

Figure 3

Writing about church administration, Powell (1946) draws a continuum from rigidly-controlled "firm leadership" to permissive "free" leadership.[52] He advocates the concept of shared-leadership in the church.

Styles of leadership and their effect on group therapy was the subject of a study by Bovards (1952).[53] Testing the effect of group-centered therapy with that of leader-centered, he found that the group-centered process leads to greater communication of feelings. It also leads to more identification with another person by the members and to greater insight into personality-dynamics than the leader-centered orientation.

The literature shows that some of the school administration theory strongly reflects the conceptualizations of the Lewin, Lippitt, and White studies. Jack Gibb, not to be confused with the Australian researcher, C. A. Gibb, has creatively expanded on the original Lewin, et al. categories. He hypothesizes two leadership styles, one which he calls "defensive" or survival-oriented,

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[52]Robert R. Powell, Managing Church Business Through Group Procedures (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, 1964), p. 136.

[53]E. W. Bovard, Jr., "Clinical Insight As a Function of Group Process," Journal of Abnormal Social Psychology, 47:534-539, 1952.

and the other "catalyst" or participative.[54] These correspond to the autocratic and democratic catagories of the earlier specifications.

Defensive administration is controlling and perpetuates a circular process of fear and distrust. This style of administration is concerned about inspiring the staff, coordinating effort, and marshalling the forces of the organization. On the other hand, the catalyst-participative approach helps the group to emerge, grow, and be free. It is the approach of the consultant who assists the group to develop goals and then to work them out. According to Jack Gibb, the catalyst-participative leader is more a team-builder and cooperative problem-solver. He is less a motivator and persuader and more a climate-builder. He does not play a role, but is the person he is.[55] He becomes more effective as he becomes more personal, available, and "deeply-with" another person.

The principal in the administrative process according to Stanavage is the instructional leader. As such it is his task to acknowledge his own limitations

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[54]Jack R. Gibb, "Expanding Role of the Administrator," The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals (May, 1967), p. 47.

[55]Ibid., p. 58.

of competencies and to act as broker for the specialties in his own organization.[56]

The Style of Leadership Suggested by the Getzels and Guba Orientation

Getzels and Guba suggested three leadership-followership styles which, while not anti-thetical to those of Lewin, Lippitt, and White, are somewhat different conceptualizations. They have identified three styles--nomothetic, the idiographic, and the transactional[57]--three ways of achieving the same goal.

The nomothetic style puts emphasis on the requirements of the institution, the roles, and the expectation. Every role incumbent is required to follow the book which the leader has in part written. There may be autocratic aspects to this style although the vector is toward the institution rather than the need of the leader to be rigid and controlling.

The idiographic style emphasizes the requirements of the individual, his personality and needs. This concept believes the most expeditious way to goal achievement

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[56]John H. Stanavage, "Man About School or How Can the Principal Be or Become and Instructional Leader," (Paper presented at the National Association of Secondary School Principals meeting in Atlantic City, N. J., 1968).

[57]Getzels and Guba, op. cit., p. 435.

is through people. This style would be closest to the democratic idea of leadership as previously described.

However, Getzels and Guba have extrapolated a third style which they call"transactional." It cuts a path between the other two and considers the needs and expectations of the institution as well as those of individuals.

> "Role conflicts, personality conflicts, and role-personality conflicts are recognized and handled. The standard of administrative excellence is individual integration and efficiency, satisfaction, and institutional adjustment and effectiveness."[58] (See Figure 4)

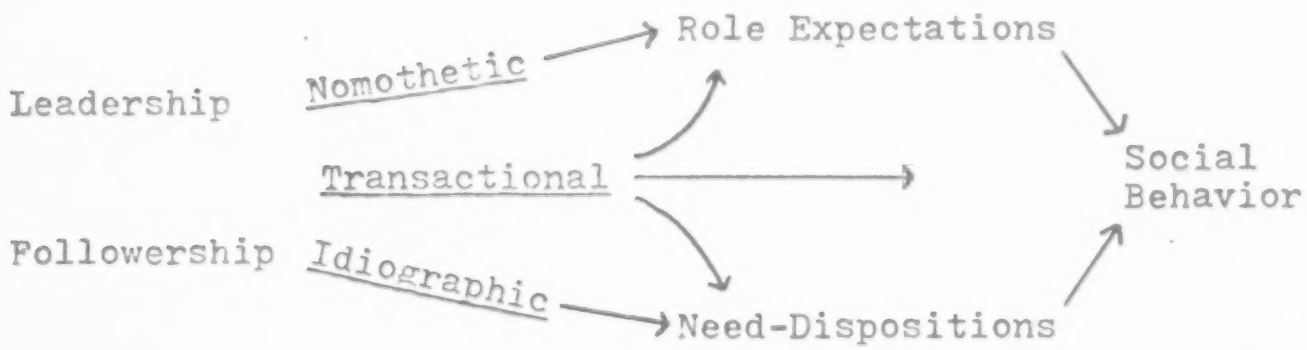

Figure 4

The viability of the Getzels and Guba conceptualization seems apparent in the analyses of Bernthal and Chung. Chung (1970) describes what he calls "teacher-

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[58] Ibid., p. 438.

centered management."[59] It is an administrative style designed to reduce the incompatibility between social-psychological needs of teachers and the monocratic and bureaucratic management patterns in educational organizations. Bernthal advocates neither an authoritarian or a democratic style, but one that is flexible and adaptable. The administrator, he says, must assess forces in himself as well as the larger environment, i.e., apply the Getzels-Guba model to administrative practice. Summarizing this approach, Cecil Gibb states:

> "Whatever the group goal, however, the effectiveness of any leadership technique lies in its acceptability to the followers, and whether authoritarian or democratic techniques are more efficient frenquently depends on the expectations of the followers."[60]

SUMMARY

In this chapter we have examined the phenomenon of leadership from a variety of perspectives. The literature discusses leadership sometimes in terms of a person-designated-leader, and sometimes as emergent group functions assumed by members of the group as needed. For

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[59] KiSuck Chung, "Teacher-Centered Management Style of Public School Principals and Job Satisfaction of Teachers," (A paper presented at the American Educational Research Association, Minneapolis, Minn., March 2-6, 1970).

[60] C. A. Gibb, op. cit., p. 261.

example, a group member may help the group move toward a problem-solving task at one time while another member may help the group with conflict management at another time. As Jack Gibb and others have indicated, the leader-designate with the appropriate and timely use of his skills may facilitate the acceptance of leadership tasks by the group members themselves.

The work of Lewin, Lippitt, and White accented the notion of "styles of leadership" - the presence and bearing of a designated leader on a small group. Their three models of leader behavior is reflected in one form or another in most of the leadership literature. Educational administration and business management literature have further refined and defined the categories, i.e., McGregor's X and Y Theories and the Blake and Moulton and Reddin grid theories.

Leadership is more than what the leader-designate brings to a group or does with a group. Hemphill's original studies on the situational aspects of the leadership phenomena and Getzels and Guba's later social system theory, including Coleman's and Wiggins application of this theory to particular situations, strengthens the case for the relational aspect of leadership behaviors. Leadership behaviors, whether emergent in the group or applied by a designated person are situational. They arise out of the environment of the group, and are appropriate to the group

task, the social-emotional climate, and the institutional setting.

Highlighting the situational aspect of the leadership literature is the work of McCarty and Ramsey who discovered in 51 communities a definite correlation between power factors in the community, the composition of the school board and the leader behaviors of the school superintendent. His behavior was situationally oriented and appropriate to how the school board viewed its work.

What elements in the leadership literature apply to the church board and the minister's leadership role? This will be discussed more fully in the final chapter.

CHAPTER III

THE GROUP TASK

As presented in the previous chapter, leadership is not merely what one "does" to others to lead them toward pre-established goals. Leadership describes all those behaviors, whether by appointed person such as an executive, or an administrator, or teacher, or by group members, which move the group toward mutually accepted goals. These behaviors, as a growing amount of evidence indicates, emerge from the life situation of the organizations, classroom, or whatever group.

The group task is seen to be an integral element of the situation influencing leadership.[1] According to Brereton and others it is the setting for leadership behaviors. It is the task and/or goal of the group which largely defines what leadership behaviors are needed to bring about the desired outcome.

The church board for example, is elected by the congregation to perform specific and clearly defined tasks

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[1]Brereton, op. cit., p. 10.

aimed at managing the ecclesiastical and secular business of the parish. Business meetings of the Presbyterian Sessions are usually conducted in strict accordance with Robert's Rules of Order and according to The Book of Order. Problems are defined; information is gathered; and decisions are made. Such attention to working "decently and in order" raises the main question of this paper.

"Can the church board, so often oriented to planning, problem solving, and looking after the nitty-gritty details of administration, readily change from being an intentional problem-solving and information-sharing group to being an intentional instructional-learning group?"

THE NATURE OF THE GROUP TASK

The Situational Aspects

Most definitions of the group task emphasize its situational dimensions. Hare says the group task is the most global way of specifying the situation in which interaction takes place;[2] it is the definition of the situation. The goal, according to Horwitz, is a state of affairs in the external environment toward which activities may be directed, and which, if reached,

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[2]Hare, op. cit., p. 246.

terminates the sequence of activities.[3] He describes the external and the internal perimeters of group goals - the external influence is through institutional imperatives, while hidden agenda and interaction of sub-groups exert pressure within the group. Collins and Guetzkow (1964) call this "task environment."[4]

Although the literature seems to use "task" and "goal" interchangeably, we shall differentiate between them. The group task is the immediate work of the group. It is the action of the group toward group goals. The group goal, on the other hand, represents the direction and the intention of work. The group task for the moment may include only a part of what the group conceives to be the goal. The task includes all the behaviors which make the achievement of the goal possible. For example, the goal may be to build a church building, while the group task on a particular day may be to consider the means of raising the funds. It could be managing group conflict over the project, what Cartwright and Zander refer to as group maintenance needs.

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[3]Murry Horwitz, "The Conceptual Status of Group Dynamics," The Planning of Change, ed, Warren Bennis, et al, (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1961), p. 280.

[4]Barry E. Collins and Harold Guetzkow, A Social Psychology of Group Processes for Decision-Making (New York: John Wiley, 1964), p. 69.

Acceptance of the Group Goals and Tasks

There is agreement that a group's effectiveness is enhanced when the members are oriented towards the same task or goals.[5] When a group comes together initially, the individuals hope to receive certain satisfactions from it.[6] They come to meetings with expectations, looking forward to the meeting or dreading it.[7] Members may be unclear about the goals and objectives. Both Flory[8] and McGregor[9] writing from the perspective of business management vigorously emphasize that objectives cannot be established or imposed from without the group.

Specified goals and purposes seem to attract people to the group with a particular motive base.[10] Satisfaction in the group is highly correlated with a member's identification with a group goal. Bass claims that if most group members are task-oriented rather than

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[5]Muzafer Sherif and M. O. Wilson, Group Relations at the Crossroads (New York: Harper, 1953), p. 259.

[6]Wilfred R. Bion, Experiences in Groups (New York: Basic, 1959), p. 53.

[7]Malcolm Knowles and Hulda Knowles, Introduction to Group Dynamics (New York: Association Press, 1959), p. 42.

[8]Flory, op. cit., p. 99.

[9]McGregor, op. cit., p. 68.

[10]Cartwright and Zander, op. cit., p. 99.

self-oriented, the group will more likely move toward its objectives.

> "Orientation depends on the particular goals of a group in which a member with given motives is placed. The less a member's motives are consistent with the group's goals, the less task-oriented is the member and the more self-oriented."[11]

Bass has discovered that some people are primarily task-oriented - they are satisfied to work hard at clearly understood tasks. Goal achievement, he continues, will more likely result from having more task-oriented members in the group than members who are self-oriented.

The notion of a "contract-acceptance-level" was suggested by a veteran observer of small groups in the church. Reid found conflict expressed when a gap exists between the stated purpose of the group and an individual's operating purpose.[12] It is possible, he says, for an entire group to agree upon a stated purpose, but operate on the basis of another goal or purpose. Reid believes it important that groups establish the level of interaction as part of the contract. In other words, groups should have a clear agreement as to whether a group will consider personal concerns and feelings or be oriented solely to

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[11]Bernard M. Bass, Leadership, Psychology and Organizational Behavior (New York: Harpers, 1960), p. 156.

[12]Clyde Reid, op. cit., p. 35.

performing some duty or task. It is possible for several operational levels to be present in one group, says Reid, so long as everyone is aware of them.

Cartwright and Zander identify two aspects of the goal formation process toward which group tasks are aimed. One is the presence of individual goals which are brought to the group. The other is the conversion of goals held by members into a group goal.[13] Each person brings to the group his own motives; sometimes they are person-centered and sometimes group-centered. He also brings a preconceived notion of what the group's history has been, i.e., past goals. And finally, he brings his perspective of the relations between the group and its social surroundings.

The literature contains little about how goals held by members can be converted into group goals. Cartwright and Zander hold that most groups fail to meet "fairness" criterion in forming goals. Such criterion assumes that all members have equal weight in the decision-making process. Four factors seem to be key elements in whether or not a group member accepts the group goal:

(A) the member's assessment of the consequences of his acceptance.

(B) the member's perception of the goal and his potential involvement with it.

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[13]Cartwright and Zander, op. cit., p. 403.

(C) the members' attraction for one another.

(D) mutual participation in goal-setting.[14]

Work and Emotionality: Two Sides of the Coin

Olmstead (1959),[15] Blake and Mouton,[16] and Reddin[17] have adopted Cartwright and Zander's classification of group task function - goal achievement and group maintenance. The literature indicates that goal-directed behavior as well as attention to the psycho-social needs of the group are task functions and therefore influence leadership behaviors. The problem for groups, administrators, managers, and educators is that some groups have an imbalance between the two functions, favoring either the goal achievement or the maintenance activities.[18]

Goal achievement includes behaviors such as initiating action, keeping the members' attention on the goal, clarifying the issues, and developing plans. Group maintenance has to do with interpersonal relations, mediating disputes, and stimulating self-direction.

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[14]Ibid., p. 411.

[15]Michael Olmstead, The Small Group (New York: Random House, Inc., 1959), p. 135.

[16]Blake and Mouton, op. cit.

[17]Reddin, op. cit.

[18]Cartwright and Zander, op. cit., p. 308.

As an outgrowth of their work at the Harvard Business School, Zaleznik and Moment (1964) have proposed three criteria for diagnosing the interpersonal setting of group work:

(a) The psychological interdependence among members required by the task,

(B) The personal involvement of the individuals with the task,

(c) The personal risks facing group members by virtue of their working together.[19]

English psychiatrist Bion (1959) has formulated a comprehensive modality for analyzing the interpersonal aspect of group life. He views the group from three possible culture-levels: dependency, pairing, and fight-flight. The dependency group looks for direction and support from outside or from a symbol of authority. The pairing group works as if the strength could come from within. The fight-flight group engages in attacking and withdrawing from the object of its concern.[20]

Group effectiveness, according to Shaw and Blum (1964), should increase by increasing the members awareness of others in the group. This is especially true for

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[19]Abraham Zaleznik and David Moment, The Dynamics of Interpersonal Behavior (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1964), p. 137.

[20]Bion, op. cit., p. 78ff.

difficult tasks which require the best efforts of the members.[21] When group members are unaware of the feelings of others, it is likely that some unacceptable decisions will be made.

The importance of work and emotionality as two sides of the same coin is stressed in the research of Portal-Foster (1966) who studied instructional-learning groups. He found the productivity of instructional groups to be largely the interaction between and among individuals in the group. He conjectured that the productivity of adult instructional groups could be enlarged if the groups were comprised on the basis of emotional profiles of prospective participants.[22] Borman emphasized that task-oriented groups also have a social dimension. He and others cite the Bales model which accounts for both the social-emotional responses and the task dimension.[23]

TYPES OF TASK GROUPS

Zaleznik and Moment (1964) appear to be the only researchers to have proposed types of work groups. Their

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[21]Marvin E. Shaw and J. Michael Blum, "Effects of the Group's Knowledge of Member Satisfaction Upon Group Performance," Psychonomic Science 1:15-16 (January, 1964).

[22]Charles Williams George Portal-Foster, "A Study of Work and Emotionality in a Small Adult Instructional Group," (unpublished Doctor's thesis, University of Wisconsin, 1966), p. 140.

[23]Ernest G. Borman, Discussion and Group Methods (New York: Harper and Row, 1969), p. 138.

conceptualization is useful to this paper in that it helps to differentiate between problem-solving groups and learning groups. Their first category or group setting is one which provides opportunity for individuals to perform tasks within the group. An example is the factory where workers are each doing separate tasks. There is little, if any, psychological interdependence; risk is low due to the relative absnece of emotional involvement by the workers. The group seeks to protect itself from outsiders such as the time-and-study engineer who may be seen as an intruder.

A second category is the group setting where information is exchanged. This group assumes each person has some information which others need by pooling information. Ordinarily this group does not engage in problem-solving or the production of new ideas. Changing work-shifts at a hospital where the staff passes along information to in-coming workers is an example of the information-sharing group. There is little psychological interdependence and risk is low. However, the workers may become bored and aggressive.

A third category is the problem-solving group. A high level of tension and psychological interdependence exists among the group members. As the group defines the problem and gathers data, it moves towards a concensus or decision. Ineffective problem-solving, according to

Zaleznik and Moment, is due to lack of commitment to the group and to a low degree of psychological interdependence.[24] As members attempt to influence one another, and as the possibility for a change in attitudes and feelings becomes more apparent, the level of risk rises. The writers take the position that in a problem-solving group the problems toward which the primary work is addressed lie outside the group.[25]

The fourth group classification is the learning group. In this category the researchers include small discussion groups, laboratory human relations groups, therapy groups, and some organization policy and planning groups. In learning groups it is assumed that change in cognition, attitudes and feelings is a possible outcome. Bradford explains that problems in learning groups arise when some are committed and others are not. Because individuals vary in degrees of anxiety about difficulties and consequences of learning, these can contribute to a general climate of resistence.[26] When the group has accepted the task of learning, it takes responsibility for the learning of each member, offering emotional support as needed.

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[24]Zaleznik and Moment, op. cit., p. 138ff.

[25]Ibid., p. 144.

[26]Leland Bradford,"Developing Potentialities Through Class Groups," Perspectives on the Group Process, ed. Clarence G. Kemp (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1964), p. 68.

The policy and planning group in a learning setting is different from the problem-solving group according to Zaleznik and Moment. It deals in long-range objectives and abstract formulations while problem-solving is more related to the immediate time and problems. High ambiguity of task and process characterize the planning and policy group whereas in the problem-solving setting the task is relatively clear. There is potential for learning in a planning group, but there is also the potential for failure as well.

The similarities between problem-solving groups and learning groups are pointed out by Zaleznick and Moment. In each there is a prominent task--decision and/or individual learning is expected. Both depend upon the sharing of information. In each group the individual members stand as resources to one another with particular skills and knowledge. And finally, integration--the need for consensus--must take place.

The teaching-learning process, according to Bradford (1958), is a human transaction involving the teacher, learner, and learning group in a set of dynamic interrelationships.[27] The goal of this process is change

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[27]Leland Bradford, "The Teaching-Learning Transaction," The Planning of Change, ed. Warren Bennis, et al. (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1961), p. 493.

and growth in the individual and his behavior. Education is seen as being much broader than mere cognition; it includes feelings and attitudes. Necessary to this projected outcome is the ability of the learner to work effectively with others in the group situation. The teacher's role is that of guiding the process of learning and change. He must be skilled in human relations and the technologies of diagnosis and analysis of the whole learning environment. The group provides the climate, the culture, in which learning may occur or not. In addition Bradford argues for sound pedagogical methods of presenting knowledge and for developing ways of evaluating learning experiences.[28]

LEADER MANAGEMENT OF TASK VARIABLES

The problem of managing excess emotional energy concerns Zaleznik and Moment. It is one of channeling surplus emotions into a variety of activities as well as into the resolution of personal problems.[29] However, understanding the group emotional process does not mean one can control or change it. It does mean that a sophisticated member of the group can help the group move effectively toward problem-solving. The appointed leader

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[28]Ibid., p. 502.

[29]Zaleznik and Moment, op. cit., p. 153.

may or may not do this. The management of group affect means that the members must take account of norms which inhibit group work or enhance it. Sometimes members have negative feelings about expressing feelings in public. Also, those who facilitate the expression of negative feelings must have the ability to deal with their impact and emotional meaning.

Again the importance of leadership to the group task is underlined by Hemphill who states:

> "A leader's most important function in the dynamics of group behavior may well be that of maintaining group membership as a satisfying experience for the members of the group and facilitating their acting as a unity rather than as separate individuals."[30]

What the leader does, he says, is largely dependent upon the characteristics of the situation in which he functions.

The teacher's task in the learning situation, according to Koff (1967) is to make sense out of the group situation.[31] His role is that of a diagnostician and consultant for a social system in which he is also a participant. He must know when to intervene, as well as when not to intervene.

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[30]Hemphill, op. cit., p. 100.

[31]Robert H. Koff, "Dynamics of Task and Process: the Classroom as Social Organism," (unpublished research memorandum no. 15, Stanford University, November, 1967).

There are problems with group management. They arise from the group's difficulty in knowing precisely where it is in relation to a goal, and what steps are to be taken to reach it.[32] This difficulty comes about because group goals are sometimes decided by a sub-part of the group rather than by consensus.

Reeves (1970) sees difficulties ahead for those who attempt to change already established group goals. Such changes are often attempted by one member of the group rather than by consensus. Changes in goals often imply changes in behavior which in turn can create fear within the group. There can be no change in goals or task without the whole group accepting such changes.[33]

SUMMARY

The relational aspects of the small group phenomenon are brought out in the literature cited in this chapter. Clearly leadership behaviors cannot be separated from the primary focus around which the group is formed. This focus is the group task.

We distinguished between goals as the more global direction-set of the group and the task as being whatever

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[32]Cartwright and Zander, op. cit., p. 402.

[33]Elton T. Reeves, The Dynamics of Group Behavior (American Management Association, 1970), p. 167.

activity is necessary to move toward the broader goals. At any particular point in the history of the group, work can be cnetered on goal achievement or group maintenance, leadership for such work being assumed either by the designated leader or coming from the group itself.

Zalenik and Moment have classified groups into four types, clearly distinguishing between administrative groups and learning groups. The nature of the task is the critical element differentiating the administrative group from the learning group.

Reid further reinforced this notion by saying that groups enter into contract for what they want to do and how they will do it. Problems arise when group members perceive the contract differently or attempt to change the contract without group acceptance.

The problem still remains: "How to change any part of the group contract, whether it be the initial focus of the group, or goals, or even the unwritten operationa philosophy of the group?" The literature says the group will do what it agrees to do; it is not clear about what is necessary to change any part of the task or even the goal.

This problem of changing the contract to include intentional learning experiences or even to change the operational philosophy of the group - is applicable to the

church board. Assuming that some changes are desirable, how can the minister as an educator and administrator intervene to facilitate change?

CHAPTER IV

CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSION

Literature concerning leadership and the group task was thought to have implications for the performance of learning tasks by the church board. Two hypotheses were advanced:

(1) Administrative groups are differentiated from learning groups primarily by:
   (A) styles of leadership and
   (B) group tasks and goals.

(2) Administrative groups in the church can become more effective at learning tasks by:
   (A) an educationally oriented and flexible leadership style of minister behavior
   (B) a commitment to study as well as to problem-solving and administration.

How do the elements of leadership and task-oriented behaviors affect an administrative group? A learning group? Is there a difference between an administrative group and a learning group? Can an administratively-oriented, problem-solving group become a learning group? What effect does the minister's behavior as he presides

over the church board have upon its working modality? How can board members work more effectively at their tasks? Can they change the group task?

Hypothesis 1

"Administrative groups are differentiated from learning groups by:

(A) styles of leadership

(B) group tasks and goals"

Conclusion: Administrative groups are differentiated from learning groups. However, the literature does not support the conjecture that such differentiation hinges upon the style of leadership which the designated leader brings to the group. More to the point, the evidence points to the group's perception of the task as being pivotal in determining the nature of the group.

Differences between administrative or problem-solving groups and learning groups have been clearly drawn by Zaleznik and Moment who categorized groups into four classifications: (a) the individual in the group setting, (b) the information exchange group, (c) the problem-solving group, and (d) the learning group. The differences, they hold, are more related to task differences than in approaches to leadership. The task in a learning group is more within the group while that of a problem-solving group are more outside the

group. Bradford supports Zaleznik and Moment in that the learning group is more oriented to behavioral changes in the members than groups organized for other purposes.

(A) With respect to styles of leadership: Leader behavior is not a valid criteria for differentiating administrative groups from learning groups. Leader behavior can be autocratic, democratic, or laisse-faire whether expressed in a classroom, a shop steward's meeting, or in church board meeting. Actually the literature of business management and educational administration desribes the leadership role as that of "teacher" and "educator."

Old stereotypes of the business manager conceptualizing his role as the "big boss" who moves and manipulates people to achieve company goals does not hold as accepted administrative practice. Management theorists and consultants such as Florey, McGregor, Reddin, Blake and Moulton use the terms "teacher" and "educator" to describe behaviors such as helping, guiding, supporting and advising. The behaviors they describe correspond to Boyd's classifications of teacher behavior in which he identifies four instrumental roles of the teacher:[1]

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[1]Robert D. Boyd, "The Teacher Role Model," (mimeographed paper, University of Wisconsin, no date).

(1) Content-Resource Person

With more information in hand than his students he can help them see wider perspectives of the issues. More important, he knows the sources of information and can direct students to them.

(2) Guide

The teacher in this role helps the learner to see relationships in his experiences and learnings. He acts to analyze why students are hving learning difficulties and is skilled in the use of these techniques.

(3) Programmer

The teacher arranges opportunities and facilities for the teaching-learning transaction. This is referred to by others as the facilitator role.

(4) Institutional Representative

Responsibility for upholding the policies of the institution is part of the teacher's task, although Boyd holds this should not pre-empt any of the functions and relationships identified under the other three roles.

The literature does not differentiate between one style of leadership for the business setting and another

for the classroom. Behaviors effective in the classroom are also applicable in other environments such as the business organization.

(B) With respect to group tasks and goals: Group goals and tasks are valid criteria for differentiating learning groups from administrative groups. Zaleznick and Moment have said both are work groups whether the emphasis is on "people work" or "task work." At some time or other each probably will do both kinds of work, the emphasis given to these tasks depending upon the purpose and goals of the group.

A significant difference seems to be the extent to which an administrative group engages in tasks external to its own life. Most of the energy of the administrative group is centered on completing tasks external to the group itself. There are reports to hear, problems to consider, and decisions to make. Feelings may break out, but these may be considered extraneous to the main purpose of the group.

Zaleznik, Moment, and Bradford theorize that learning groups are groups whose primary goal is to learn. This of course, means behavioral changes -- changes in attitudes, feelings, values, and cognition of the group members. While there may be some learnings, i.e., behavioral changes in problem-solving groups, this is

coincidental to the stated focus of the group. As Shaw and Blum have observed, a group may reach a decision in which people are unhappy with the group decision because they did not or were not allowed to express their feelings. In a problem-solving group the task is mainly external to the group, while in a learning setting it is internal, what Boyd and Bradford call the "teaching-learning transaction," involving the leader, the learner, and the group setting which we conclude is the task.

Hypothesis 2

"Administrative groups in the church can become more effective in learning tasks by:

(A) an educationally-oriented and flexible leadership style by the minister

(B) a commitment to study as well as to problem-solving and administration.

Conclusion: The inference from the literature is that administrative groups can become more effective at learning tasks or even accept learning as an intentioned task. Therefore, we conclude this is possible for the church board.

(A) With respect to leader's style of leadership: The literature is rather clear that the leader will not make the group accept what it has not agreed to accept as

its task or goal. On the other hand, an educationally-oriented and flexible leadership style by the minister can effect how the group or board goes about its accepted task, whether it be a decision-making task-group or a learning task-group.

It can be argued from this that if a leader-designate -- the minister-moderator of the church board -- is open, democratic, and flexible in his relationship to the board, it is more likely that the group will be more open to accepting learning tasks.

A leader in the field of educational administration, Jack Gibb, coined the term "catalyst-participative" to describe those behaviors involved in developing the group climate whereby the members are helped to grow, be free and exercise leadership functions required by the group.

Although a democratic, 9,9 management style may not lead a group to do what it does not wish to do, the catalyst-participative approach suggested by Jack Gibb may help the group exercise mutual leadership. Herein may lie the clue to assisting an administrative problem-solving group to accept learning goals. If the group setting provides satisfying experiences with a minimum of fear and distrust, it may be more ready to follow the leading of persons within it to change the task from problem-solving to learning tasks. Koff agrees it is the

leader's responsibility to act as diagnostician and consultant to the group to bring about these behaviors. Reeves warned against those one or two persons who would move a group toward their own personal goals without taking cognizance of where the other members are. The designated leader should know when this is happening and help the group to refrain from premature and inappropriate actions.

The Getzels and Guba social systems model is useful in providing the minister with a theoretical framework for analyzing the contextual environment in which he, as well as the board, must exercise leadership.

Leadership behaviors whether by the group or by a designated leader do not occur in a vacuum. The role expectations of the institution as well as the need dispositions of the people who make up the institution call for appropriate leadership behaviors. Getzels and Guba propose a middle ground, what they call a "transactional style," cutting a middle path between the expectations of the institution and the people who comprise the institution.

While most of the literature favors the democratic teacher-centered approach to the autocratic, rigidly controlling approach, Cecil Gibb opts for a flexibility in leadership style accepted by the group and appropriate to the situation.

Can a church board become more effective at learning tasks if the minister-moderator exercises an educationally-oriented and flexible leadership style? The literature indicates that leader behavior is positively correlated with group performance. The minister's behavior may not change the agenda of the church board from considering the church budget to taking up a study of human sexuality, but such behavior will influence the operational effectiveness of the church board. As a designated and recognized leader -- constitutionally appointed to moderate the church board -- is the minister a competent diagnostician to assess the environment? In the role of teacher can he help the group set goals and work toward them? How skillfully can he diagnose the internal problems of the group and, interpreting these to the group, help it to move forward toward its goals? Can he help the group maintain balance between task achievement and group maintenance functions? Is he flexible enough to allow leadership from the group to manifest itself?

These are transactional questions. They imply that the minister-moderator not only influences the working modality of the Session, but is influenced by the situation in which he works. In other words, the situation makes its mark on the man as he does on the

situation. McCarty and Ramsey identify what they call "the leadership dilemma." Is it circumstances which determine success or is it administrative acumen? The leader knows what is possible and not possible. He has the skill to diagnose the total environment and act accordingly.

Skills in the observation and diagnosis of small group behavior, flexibility of leadership behavior, and facility in timing are skills which the minister-moderator must bring to the parish church board. The terminology of Jack Gibb seems to best summarize the minister's functional role as the designated leader of the Session. He is the "catalyst-participative leader" whose efforts are directed toward building the church board into an effective team and all members are helped to assume leadership functions as they emerge in the group. The minister's educational role is to encourage the board members to accept responsibility for developing a work climate which is as tuned into the emotionality of the members as it is to getting on with the tasks of administration. The monumental work of Bion in classifying the work cultures of the small group cannot be ignored with respect to group emotionality.

(B) <u>With Respect to Commitment to Study</u>: The major conclusion of this paper is that an administrative

group who perceives its work to be decision-making may not engage readily in other tasks unless it, as a group, accepts such tasks and makes a commitment to them. Certainly the minister can lead a board to a consideration of learning tasks and try to get the group to accept them, but if the learning task is not accepted, there is little he can do without violating his own integrity as an educator and that of the group.

Self-directing adults should have the freedom to do what they think is appropriate,[2] although such decisions may not always correspond to the minister's expectation or even those of the United Presbyterian Church. To deny this freedom of self-direction is to put aside the purpose of education which is to help a person grow and be free.

IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

Questions such as the following are yet unanswered:

(A) How do Session members in fact perceive their primary tasks?

(B) What do they name as secondary tasks?

(C) What are the role expectations for the minister-moderator at Session meetings?

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[2]Malcolm Knowles, The Modern Practice of Adult Education (New York: Association Press, 1970), pp. 1-50.

(D) What are the minister's perceptions of his role as moderator?

(E) Does the minister work with the Session from any conscious theoretical framework?

(F) What are the objectives of Church Officer Development programs? What are the goals of those who engage in church officer development?

(G) What programs are being offered by seminaries to prepare the minister to work with parish boards?

(H) What continuing education programs are and should be available to the practicing minister?

(I) Can church boards be classified as to the relationship between type of board and the minister's style of leadership? (See reference to McCarty and Ramsey's research on school boards, p. 29ff).

The church board, like the school board and other management or administrative groups, is a valid area for research. However, little has been done to study the inner processes of the church board except in rather isolated instances. As Edgar Mills of the Ministry Studies Board has said, the problem is not that research is not

being done, but the problem is discovering who is doing it. The need for further study of the church board seems apparent particularly in these days of structural change in the institutional church. If educational programs are to be designed to assist the minister and church officers, then they should be designed on the basis of research evidence. Is it enough to offer programs in church polity and theology for board members without first helping them to learn the processes and characteristics of their own group? We argue from the literature evidence that the minister, if he has been trained in the skills of group observation and analysis, can be the primary teacher in guiding the church board in a systematic experience of learning how to work together, engage conflict, and be more open and accepting of each other. This writer feels that while a Session might not accept the task of "studying" the proposal for the restructuring of national boards and agencies of the denomination, it may be more inclined to accept a learning task in which the members have a personal investment. Such learning must be problem-oriented and innovative, utilizing some of the simulation devices and teaching-learning tools already developed.

However, we conclude the church in both its preparatory education and its continuing professional

education must do more to enhance the minister's skills as an educator-administrator whose task it is to mediate between the needs of the institution and the needs of the individual.

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